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POPULATION AND DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH IN THE
PHILIPPINES: A SURVEY

By:

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Philippine Institute for Development Studies

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THE COCONUT INDUSTRY

I. THE INDUSTRY IN GENERAL

A. Magnitudes

- forex earnings \$1,019 B for 1973; 27% of total export
- hectarage 2.7 to 3 m hectares
- world trade contribution 80%
- world fats and oils market share 6 - 8%

B. Self-supporting Industry

- levy

C. Institutional Relationships

- PCA-Cocofed-UCPB triumvirate
- other associations

D. Current Market Situation

II. Strategies for Industry Development

- Farmer-oriented

A. Stabilization of supply

- Replanting/planting program
- Consolidation of present production
- Rationalization of milling facilities

B. Market Development

- Consolidation of present demand
- Tap other markets
- Develop new products

C. Stable financing - UCPs

D. Institute rational, dynamic organization - Cocofed

E. Harness farmers in program implementation

F. Develop rational monitoring system

G. Develop effective extension program

III. PCA Role

A. P.D. 232/1468 - Promotion, Development, Regulation

1. accelerated development
2. General directions
3. vertical integration

B. Board - 7 members, 3 from farmer sector

C. Regulatory

D. Market Development

E. Industrial Research

F. Agricultural Development

G. Agricultural Research

H. Administration

LIGHT RAIL TRANSIT (LRT)
AND THE METRO MANILA SCENARIO

- A. An Introduction: The Transportation System
 - 1. Ministry of Transportation and Communication and its attached agencies
 - 2. Creation of the TTC
 - 3. National Transportation Policy
 - 4. The METROPLAN
- B. The Light Rail Transit and its Role in the Transportation Scenario
 - 1. Capital Requirements of the LRT and its long-run effects
 - 2. Characteristics and the inherent limitations in the use of the LRT
 - 3. The dominant role LRT will play in the Metro Manila Scenario and its planning implications
- C. Learning from the San Francisco Experience
 - 1. The history of the Bay Area Rapid Transit (BART)
 - 2. Capacity Underutilization and the Problem of Demand
 - 3. Misallocation of Resources Resulting to Regressive Income Taxation
- D. Government Intervention and Policy Directions
 - 1. Defining the market that will be served by the LRT, consistent with development goals (i.e. bus users, automobile users)
 - 2. Establishing policies consistent with:
 - a. target market
 - b. maximizing LRT's cost effectiveness
 - c. pricing and subsidy
 - d. inducement to use LRT
 - e. integration of buses and jeepneys in route planning
 - 3. Providing for short-run and long-run opportunities for displaced jeepney and bus drivers/facilities.

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Abstract

A review of social science research on population and development in the Philippines reveals that we know more about fertility levels, less on migration and much less so on mortality. And generally, in each of the variables, we know more about trends at the national level than at the sub-national level and among social groups.

Studies that examined the impact of rapid population growth at the national level point to the adverse effects of such growth on per capita income, employment, and the provision of basic services such as education and health. However, these did not study the actual consequences of demographic trends, rather these consequences were inferred from the results of simulation exercises using economic-demographic models of different specifications. A new generation of consequence studies seem to be needed, namely those that would determine who are the most adversely affected by demographic trends, what are their characteristics, and where are they located. Such information could help formulate policies and programs geared directly towards specific population groups.

With respect to the determinants of demographic trends, the studies reviewed suggest potential relationships among demographic variables, e.g., differential migration patterns can have significant impact on nuptiality patterns and therefore on fertility. In addition, the studies reviewed suggest that changes in the values of the non-demographic areas of concern could have discernible impact on demographic trends: with respect to fertility, through changes in education and health, as well as through female employment via its effects on the age at marriage; with respect to migration, through availability of employment opportunities and access to education services; and finally, with respect to mortality, through improved health and nutrition services and improved environmental sanitation. Hence, policies and programs that affect these areas of concern could have significant impact on the demographic variables. What is not precisely known, however is (a) the quantitative extent and the specific mechanisms through which these policies and programs affect these areas of concern; and (b) through what specific mechanisms and to what quantitative extent do changes in these broad non-demographic areas of concern in turn affect the demographic variables. These types of information are critical in the optimal design of policies and programs that address both the non-demographic and demographic objectives.

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POPULATION AND DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH IN THE
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Alejandro N. Herrin*

INTRODUCTION

This paper attempts to review the state of social science research on population and development relationships in the Philippines with the aim of taking stock of what we know about such relationships as a guide to development planning, and of providing a basis for formulating recommendations to guide future research on the topic.

The many population-related studies by independent investigators often contain reviews of past studies and suggestions for further research. In addition, efforts to bring together experts in various fields to focus on the status and directions of population-related research have also been made in the past. (Concepcion, 1966, 1969; Bulatao, 1976). However, neither singly nor in combination do these efforts readily provide a unified view of the larger perspective needed for the development of a systematic knowledge base and a national research agenda specifically geared to the needs of policy makers and planners in the 1980s.

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Background

The increased concern of the role of population in development led many governments at the turn of the 1970s to adopt an official population policy whose main focus was the reduction of the rapid population growth. The main population program was the family planning program aimed at providing contraceptive technology to reduce fertility. The rapid declines in fertility noted in some countries have been attributed in varying extent to the impact of such programs. It was difficult however, to assess the impact such program has had on the population growth since the countries that had achieved the most rapid declines in fertility were also the countries which underwent rapid economic and social transformation. Among other factors, this led many governments to view rapid socioeconomic transformation as an important factor for the rapid and sustained decline in fertility. This view further reinforced by discussions at international forums (e.g., the 1974 Bucharest Conference) has led to the recognition of the necessity of formulating population policies and programs as integral parts of the social and economic development strategy.

The present concern in the Philippines for such integration has been more clearly stated in the report of the Special Committee to Review the Philippine Population Program (1978). Noting that while some efforts

have been taken to link the Philippine Population Program with other economic and social dimensions of development, the Committee found that to a large extent, the program has remained essentially a family planning program. Moreover, the Committee observed that whenever population was considered in the formulation of development plans, it was often treated more as a demand variable than as a factor that can be influenced by economic and social development. Hence, the Committee recommended that "the Philippine Population Program should be designed on a broader scale and be fully integrated in the national development plans of the country. Economic, social and institutional policies and programs should be evolved with a conscious consideration of their impact on demographic behavior and objectives". (p. 122).

Part of the failure to fully integrate population into the overall development plan is the difficulty of such integration at the operational level. This in turn is partly due to the complexity of the interaction between population and socioeconomic development, and partly due to the inadequacy of the empirical knowledge base both internationally and nationally for the assessment of such interrelationships for development planning. An additional reason has been suggested, namely that "until recently, there has been an unclear institutional responsibility for advocating and overseeing the fuller integration of population in development concerns. This has resulted

in a rather weak and uncoordinated effort towards integration." (Pante and Morales, 1980).

It is within the context of the above developments that this present effort to review social science research on population and development relationships in the Philippines is made. The ultimate aim is to hasten the operational integration of population in development concerns by expanding the knowledge base necessary to support such effort.

Coverage and Approach

A note on the coverage and approach of this review is in order. Population-related research has sometimes been classified into: (a) research on demographic levels, trends and patterns; (b) research on socio-economic-demographic relationships; and (c) action or program-oriented research. In the Philippines, considerable work has been done with respect to the first and third of these categories and some recent attempts at synthesis have been made. (Concepcion and Smith, 1977 for the first category, and Laing, 1979 for the third category). The main focus of this review, therefore, will be on the second category of researches as indicated by the title of this paper.

Within this second broad category of researches, the review is organized around the examination of empirical studies focusing primarily on the major demographic variables, namely: (a) fertility, (b) mortality, and (c) migration. Within the fertility variable, studies dealing with nuptiality and other immediate correlates of fertility are examined, while within the migration variable, studies dealing with internal and international migration are distinguished. Emphasis was placed on those empirical studies which analyzed data whose coverage included the nation as a whole (e.g., census, vital registration, national survey data) to reflect findings that would be representative of the national situation.

For each of the major variables, the review is further organized around the following questions, modifying somewhat the approach adopted by the International Review Group of Social Science Research on Population and Development (1978):

- (a) How much is known about the determinants, including individual, household and community level determinants, of the variable and its components?
- (b) How much is known about the consequences of the particular demographic behavior for individuals and families; for geographical, communities and specific groups; and for

the nation as a whole?

- (c) How much is known about the impact of public policies and programs on the variable in question?

In view of the existing synthesis of studies dealing with the levels, trends and patterns of the demographic variables in question, only a brief introduction is made in this review to put the subsequent discussions into proper perspective, and to identify issues that could later be clarified by further research.

The subsequent sections of this report are organized as follows. In the succeeding four sections a review of studies is made focusing respectively on mortality, fertility, internal migration, and international migration. The final section highlights the more important findings regarding population and development relationships and the most critical gaps in knowledge requiring serious investigation. Both these aspects are discussed within a simple framework of population-development relationships geared towards a policy maker's and planner's viewpoint.

MORTALITY

Writing in 1974, Flieger (1976) lamented the fact that compared to fertility, information regarding mortality has been quite scanty, and that whatever available information there are, they refer almost totally to the national population, leaving "an almost complete lack of mortality information for regions and provinces." Part of the problem has been that the major sources of data for the estimation of mortality were either deficient or defective. Vital registration data, for example, were only about 60 percent complete for the Philippines in 1970, and the completeness of registration varied from 30 percent in Western and Southern Mindanao to 80 percent in Southern Tagalog (Abenoja and Flieger, 1979). Censuses, on the other hand, contained defects in the age-sex structure data making the application of indirect estimation techniques difficult.

The above assessment of the state of mortality information is still generally valid today. However, notable gains have been achieved since then, and although accumulating slowly and unevenly, the studies in the last five years have provided us more information than heretofore been available. These developments included the emergence of new sources of data such as the sample vital registration system project of the National Census and Statistics Office implemented during 1971-1973, and the 1968 and 1973 National Demographic Surveys. Paralleling these were the increased efforts to apply indirect techniques of mortality estimation

from census, vital registration, and survey data to produce not only national mortality estimates but also differential mortality estimates by region, province, and social group. In spite of this progress, however, important gaps in knowledge still exist especially in the area of mortality-development relationships as the subsequent discussion will reveal. A review of available studies, however, provides some concrete basis for making inferences regarding their relationship.

Levels, Trends and Differentials

National Levels and Trends. What we know about national mortality levels and trends in terms of such indicators as the crude death rate or the life expectancy at birth, are based mostly upon the estimates of several investigators using different sources of data and measurement techniques (e.g., Aromin, 1961; Lorimer, 1966; Madigan and Avanceña, 1968; Hijares, 1975; Elliger, 1976; Zablan, 1975a). These sets of estimates compiled recently by Zablan (1978) reveal a pattern of gradually declining mortality from the earlier part of the century up to the beginning of the Second World War, a rapid decline during the postwar period up to the end of the 1960s, and a somewhat slackening of the decline thereafter up to the early 1970s. Estimates for the mid- and late 1970s are hard to come by. The emerging pattern is roughly illustrated as follows. Estimates of life expectancy at birth place an upperbound value of 38 years in 1918 which increased to 40 years in

1938. From a level of 45 years in 1948, it rose to 59 years in 1968, and to around 61 years in 1973. The average annual increase in the respective periods are 0.10, 0.70 and 0.40 years.

The rapid decline in mortality after the Second World War is a common observation in many developing countries. The major factor for such dramatic decline, especially in the earlier part of the postwar period, has often been attributed to effect of the introduction of relatively inexpensive public health measures more than to the effect of general economic development. While the relative quantitative contribution of each factor to mortality decline in the immediate postwar period has yet to be firmly established in the Philippines, one additional and perhaps more important finding that needs explanation is the slackening of the mortality decline in the most recent past. While one can expect an eventual slowing down of the rate of mortality decline once some low level of mortality has been achieved, there is a suggestion that, on the basis of observed international mortality patterns, the slowing down of the mortality decline in the early 1970s may be somewhat premature. The average annual increment in life expectancy of 0.40 years observed between 1968 and 1973 is expected generally of populations which have achieved a high level of life expectancy of around 70 years or so. If our estimates of life expectancy of around 60 years for that period is correct, the expected annual increments

should have been still around 0.56 years (UN, 1956 cited in Zablan, 1977). That we are falling below the expected rate of mortality decline suggests the need for a more careful quantitative study of recent mortality determinants.

Differentials. Several estimates of areal mortality differentials have been made. These include (a) estimates from the NCSO's Sample Vital Registration Project which provide direct estimates of crude death rates by region for 1971 (Flieger, 1976) and for 1971-73 (Mijares, 1976); (b) indirect estimates by region and by provinces using census and vital registration data for 1970 (Flieger, 1979); and (c) indirect estimates by region using 1968 and 1973 NDS data (e.g., Smith et. al., 1975; Zablan, 1975b). Zablan (1978) has provided a convenient summary of some of the results of the studies conducted using the 1973 NDS data.

All these studies point to the fact that the mortality levels by region, and even by provinces within regions are far from uniform; suggesting that a single national mortality estimate hides more than it reveals in terms of mortality conditions in the country. For example, the results of the analyses from the 1968 and 1973 NDS data summarized in Zablan (1978), show that the life expectancy at birth (a measure not affected by the age composition of the population) in 1973 ranged from 62-65 years in such regions as Metro Manila, Ilocos, Central Luzon, Southern Tagalog, Bicol, and Central Visayas, to a low of 56-58 years

in such regions as Northern Mindanao, Western Mindanao, Eastern Visayas and Cagayan Valley. The Philippine average was around 61 years.

In addition to the differential mortality levels, regional estimates for 1968 and 1973 further reveal areas where life expectancy has either declined, or failed to increase as fast as the other regions. Regions with already low life expectancies in 1968 and had further declines in life expectancies in 1973 include Cagayan Valley, Eastern Visayas and Northern Mindanao. On the other hand, regions with already high life expectancies in 1968 and had further increases in life expectancies in 1973 include Central Luzon, Southern Tagalog, Bicol, and Metro Manila. These differential trends tended to further widen existing regional mortality differentials over time. That some regions with high life expectancies in 1968 (Ilocos and Southern Mindanao) showed declines in life expectancies that tended to narrow differentials among regions somewhat is no consolation at all. Even differentials among provinces within a given region vary a great deal, sometimes varying as much as 11-14 years of life expectancy in 1970, (Rizal vs. Palawan or Ilocos Norte vs. Mt. Province) (Flieger's data, 1979).

An analysis of mortality differentials by sub-groups of the population based on the 1973 NDS data was made by Alcantara (1975). The results however, are highly subject to measurement error which render interpretation difficult. Nevertheless, the results tend to show that

childhood mortality measured in terms of the probability of dying from birth to age two (q_2) tend to be higher among farm wives than among professionals and related workers, and higher among wives with low than with high educational attainments. Likewise, childhood mortality is higher in the rural than in the urban area.

Determinants.

What the above data do not reveal, however, is why differentials occur, and why trends vary among region, in some cases reversing a favorable trend. Practically no systematic effort has yet been made to quantitatively identify the determinants of both areal and household or individual mortality levels and differentials. The most that has been done by way of empirical analysis has been to relate regional mortality levels with a set of socio-economic indicators in an attempt to develop a regional typology by levels of health welfare (Zablan, 1977) or by computing simple correlation coefficients between provincial mortality and a few socio-economic variables (Abenoja and Lim, 1979).

Zablan (1977) related regional life expectancies at birth with several socio-economic indicators to reflect average regional levels of nutrition, sanitation, income, health facilities, health manpower, infrastructure, literacy, urbanization, farm activity and government per capita health expenditures. On the basis of the rank orders of the

regions for the indicators, three types of regions by level of health welfare was identified namely: (a) regions with low levels of health welfare as exemplified by Cagayan Valley, Northern Mindanao, Western Mindanao, Southern Mindanao, Eastern Visayas and Bicol; (b) regions with varying levels of health welfare as exemplified by Ilocos, Western Visayas and Central Visayas; and (c) regions with high levels of health welfare as exemplified by Metro Manila, Southern Tagalog and Central Luzon. Zablan suggests that the disparities in the levels of health welfare across regions seem to reflect to a large extent, the degree of access to health services, and to a lesser extent, the level of socio-economic development obtaining in the region (Zablan, 1977).

This exercise while suggesting important socio-economic demographic interrelationships, stopped short of attempting to quantify such possible relationships say, through application of multivariate statistical techniques. The purpose of the exercise was more on targetting areas where substantial mortality decline can be achieved through public interventions rather than identifying the determinants of the observed mortality differentials.

In a different approach, Abenoja and Lim (1979) applied simple correlational analysis between 1970 provincial male life expectancy at birth in the Visayan regions, with a few socio-economic indicators. High positive and significant correlations were found between life

expectancy and (a) the opportunities for non-agricultural employment, indexed by the proportion of experienced workers in secondary and tertiary sectors and by the number of large establishments per 10,000 population; (b) the average level of living as indexed by the percent of households with refrigerators; and (c) the degree of urbanization as indexed by population density.

The results of both the studies cited above, however, are inadequate to determine the effect of these socio-economic factors on mortality. Both mortality and socio-economic variables were measured either in the same year as in the case of the Abenoja and Lin study or even beyond the period of reference in which mortality levels were measured as in the case of the Zablan exercise. Such correlational findings, however, provide an initial basis for future testing of hypothesis with respect to the determinants of areal mortality differentials.

An indirect approach to the understanding of the major sets of determinants of mortality trend would be the analysis of the different causes of deaths. This approach used by Preston (1975; 1979) to examine international mortality trends looks at what portions of the decline in mortality can be attributed to the declines in deaths due to different diseases. The assumption is that diseases vary in the degree to which they are responsive to living standards or are capable of being controlled

by medical technology. Unfortunately cause of death statistics, if available, are often unreliable in view of the inherent difficulty of assessing the precise cause of death and they are most likely incomplete. Nevertheless, from whatever data is available, mostly those collected by the Disease Intelligence Center of the Department (now Ministry) of Health, some tentative analysis can be made concerning the possible role played by general economic development and public health measures in reducing mortality in post-war Philippines. Data on death rates by leading causes compiled from the above source and reported but unanalyzed by Zablan (1978) for the period 1946 to 1972 reveal that death rates due to such diseases as pneumonia, influenza, bronchitis, dysentery, gastro-enteritis and nutritional deficiency, diseases often associated with environmental changes due to economic development have posted major declines since 1946. However rates due to control of such diseases as malaria, measles and tuberculosis which are often associated with application of inexpensive modern medical technology have likewise declined. Between 1946 and 1960 death rates due to all of the causes of death enumerated above declined by 57 percent (from 888 to 383 per 100,000). Two-thirds of this decline was accounted for by the decline in mortality from the first set of causes. Between 1960 and 1972, mortality declined by only 18 percent (383 to 315 per 100,000), a much slower rate of decline, of which the first set of causes contributed again about 70 percent of such decline. It would appear that mortal-

ity declines associated broadly with general economic development have been more important than mortality declines associated with the introduction of inexpensive public health measures, especially in the more recent period. This would tend to be contrary to international opinion regarding mortality declines in the post-war era in less developed countries. Although this type of analysis is at best crude in view of the incompleteness and perhaps inaccuracy of the cause of death data and in view of the failure to account for the interaction between the two sources of mortality decline due to specific diseases, it suggests two important tentative hypothesis requiring further systematic study. First, the proportion of deaths due to causes easily amenable to reduction by inexpensive narrowly defined public health measures are quite low to start with, and any mortality reduction due to these causes, however large and rapid, would have a relatively minimal impact on overall mortality decline. Secondly, the rate of decline in mortality due to the first set of causes has considerably slowed down between 1960 and 1972, suggesting that further gains in mortality decline would have to be associated with the effects of a broad based public health program and economic development. Just exactly what type of program and what type of development will have the greatest impact on mortality is still to be determined by more systematic social science research. Detailed analysis of better cause of death statistics could be an important aspect of such policy-oriented research from which a specific

strategy of mortality reduction could be based. For example, the percentage of all deaths due to pneumonia and respiratory tuberculosis were still the highest in 1972 as they were in 1946, both accounting for 27 percent of all deaths. Clearly, significant mortality reduction can be achieved by strategies that bear upon such diseases.

A set of studies which do not deal directly with mortality but could provide concrete hypothesis for the study of mortality determinants are the studies dealing with nutrition, morbidity, and the distribution and utilization of health services (Florencio, 1977; Layo, 1977; Paqueo, 1977a; 1977b; Battad, 1977, 1978; Adorna, 1977). These studies collectively suggest large differentials in nutritional status and morbidity by type of diseases across regions and provinces as well as differentials in the distribution of health services. These differentials may well be directly related to the observed areal differences in mortality rates. At the household level, these studies suggest the importance of such variables as income and education as well as household size and composition as determinants of incidence of malnutrition among pre-schoolers (Battad, 1977, 1978; Paqueo, 1977a). On the other hand, such factors as (a) household size and composition, (b) environmental variables such as quality of drainage and quality of ventilation, (c) traditional health beliefs and health knowledge, and (d) education beyond elementary school have been found to be significant predictors

of morbidity, with the first two sets of variables being more significant than the latter two (Layo, 1977). Together these factors indirectly affect mortality via their impact on nutrition and morbidity. Much more detailed analyses are needed, however, before a set of definitive conclusions can be made.

Consequences

The most discussed effect of declining mortality at the macro level is the increase in population growth. At the household level, this is reflected in increased family size, as more births survive to adulthood. While declining mortality may reduce fertility somewhat, the results of international studies show that the replacement effect of reduced mortality is less than compensatory, thus leaving a net effect of increased family size (Preston, 1975a). In turn, the consequences of increased family size is often discussed in relation to fertility, and hence, these studies will be treated in the next section.

Public Policy

Quantitative studies on the impact on mortality of public interventions, even specific health interventions, are practically nonexistent. This is probably due to the strongly held, but unsystematically documented view, that the public health programs would naturally

have an impact on mortality. Another reason may be the difficulty of evaluating the impact of such programs in view of the limited data available and of the complex factors that affect mortality. A recent evaluation of large-scale maternal and child health-based family planning project implemented in Bohol for example, did not show a decline in mortality as conventionally measured during the five-year duration of the project (1974-79). While many factors were probably responsible for this observed lack of mortality impact (e.g., short duration of observation period and relatively small sample size), the evaluators suggest that perhaps an important contributory factor may be that the project efforts were not closely tailored to the major causes of death, which in turn was primarily due to the inadequate data on this aspect (Parado, Williamson, and Maturan, 1980). Nevertheless, evaluations of the mortality impact of public health programs are necessary in order to determine what specific types of programs will tend to have the largest impact on mortality per unit of resource used. The concern for the need to reallocate resources within the health sector to redress existing geographical and social group imbalances could be guided by the results of such studies.

Research Agenda

The main problem from a policy and program standpoint seems to be the determination of the type of health program and the type of

development that will have the greatest effect on mortality. The research strategies suggested by an International Review Group of Social Science Research on Population and Development seem specially worthy of consideration, namely (a) to increase the awareness of both policy-makers and the general public of the existing inequality in health status between the rich and the poor; (b) to establish more precisely the cost-effectiveness and likely mortality impact of reoriented health policies, and to make such results well known; and (c) to determine the feasibility of reorienting health policies in the absence of broader changes in political and institutional structure (IRG, 1979, p. 80).

In the Philippine context the above strategies could be operationalized more specifically in terms of studies dealing with determinants and consequences of, and the impact of public policy on, mortality and perhaps on two of its closest correlates: morbidity and nutrition. Firstly, the earlier attempts to describe and analyze mortality differentials by geographical areas and by social groups needs to be continued. New data sets, that have become available since the 1973 NDS include several rounds of the Area Fertility Surveys, (one round includes direct information on mortality), the 1978 RPFS, and the recently concluded 1980 census. Application of indirect estimation techniques such as the Brass methods as earlier done, could be pursued. These methods, however, provide estimates of past mortality levels and patterns, and are more

accurate for child mortality in the recent past than for adult mortality. Application of indirect estimation techniques from widowhood data have been shown to yield reasonable estimates of adult mortality in some international applications. This approach could be explored. The resulting estimates from this approach could be fitted with child mortality estimates to generate a complete and consistent set of age-specific mortality rates and life expectancies. In addition, infant mortality can be estimated from pregnancy history data collected in the above-mentioned surveys, and from which analysis of differentials could also be made. Finally, even as vital registration is being improved, various techniques of estimation using vital registration data could still yield reasonable estimates of mortality trends.

Secondly, multivariate analysis of known or suspected determinants of mortality trends and differentials needs to be made. Since existing data sets do not often contain such rich data on possible explanatory variables, serious consideration should be made in collecting such information in future survey rounds of on-going demographic projects, or in designing new surveys specifically meant to implement such types of analyses. Complementary to such multivariate statistical analysis would be the careful in-depth micro-level analysis of the mechanisms by which broad socio-economic correlates, e.g., income and education, affect mortality change. The first and second research leads suggested

above should likewise apply to morbidity and nutrition studies.

Thirdly, cause of death statistics should regularly be compiled and analyzed for possible trends and differentials. While admittedly such data sets tend to be unreliable in view of the difficulty in most cases of determining the precise cause of death, it may still provide useful indicators of trends in types of causes that could most effectively be affected by redesigned public health measures.

Fourthly, there is a need to evaluate the mortality effects of a wide range of public interventions not only the more narrowly defined public health measures but also such programs as food and nutrition, water supply, housing, and environmental sanitation. The evaluation could also seek to what extent current interventions first affect the immediate correlates of mortality among the population groups exhibiting highest mortality; namely, morbidity and malnutrition. While the evaluation of such interventions is made difficult by the lack of adequate evaluative research methodology, the experience of the ESIA/WID Projects could hopefully provide useful research strategies for such evaluations.

FERTILITY

Levels, Trends and Differentials

Compared to mortality, we have more information regarding levels, trends and differentials in fertility. While vital registration data still remain inadequate as a major source of reliable estimates, census data and more recently, the national and regional demographic surveys, have provided current estimates of fertility at both the national and regional levels, as well as by social groups. What we know about fertility levels, trends and differentials are summarized recently in several studies (e.g., Concepcion and Smith, 1977; de Guzman, 1978; Concepcion and Mijares, 1979; WFS-RPFS, 1979).

National Level and Trends. Available estimates of national fertility levels reveal a fairly constant birth rate ranging from 50 to 56 births per thousand population in the first half of the century, gradually declining beginning the 1950s to reach around 40 to 43 births per thousand in 1970. A somewhat faster decline occurred in the mid-1970s so that by 1977, the crude birth rate has been reduced to around 30-32.

Estimates of total fertility rate and total marital fertility rate for the more recent period from 1965 to 1977 likewise reveal a downward trend. Total fertility rate declined from 6.3 births per

woman in 1965 to 5.89 in 1970 and then to 5.01 in 1977. Total marital fertility rate on the other hand declined from its 1965 level of 9.67 births per ever married woman to 9.55 in 1970 and 9.10 in 1977 (WFS-RPFS, 1979, Table 3.11). The evidence, however, indicates that the decline in fertility rates under age 25 has been due largely to deferment of marriage, than to reduction in fertility within marriage. In fact, marital fertility rates for the three periods have slightly increased for women ages 15-19 and 20-24 years. Within marriage, the declines started among women by age 25 years and over with largest absolute declines occurring among women ages 25-34 years. This pattern suggests that older and higher parity women take the lead in reducing fertility through contraception. This pattern of fertility decline reflects the relative roles played by the two proximate determinants of fertility change, to be described later, namely, changes in nuptiality patterns and changes in contraceptive prevalence.

Regional Differentials. Data from three national demographic surveys (1966 and 1973 NDS, and 1973 RPFS) provide further information on rural-urban and regional fertility differentials. Preliminary estimates of mean children ever born to ever-married women who have been married 10-13 years at the time of the 1973 RPFS survey reveal lower fertility in the urban than in the rural areas; 4.5 versus 5.3; and generally lower fertility in Metro Manila than the rest of the country, with a gradient of higher fertility as one moves from Luzon to Visayas

and to Mindanao: 4.2, 5.1, 5.2 and 5.4, respectively (WFS-RPFS, 1979, Table 5.7). Similar regional pattern is observed for the period 1963-1967 and 1968-72 from the 1968 and 1973 NDS data. In this latter set of data as reported by de Guzman (1978; Table 103), evidence of declining total fertility rates is evident in almost all regions with the consequence of slightly narrowing regional fertility differentials during the two periods. It is difficult at present, however, to pinpoint precisely the determinants of these more recent regional trends.

Some earlier studies, however, have attempted to relate regional or provincial fertility differentials to several socio-economic factors. Smith (1971) found that socio-cultural, demographic and socio-economic factors as indexed in 1938 by such factors as physical characteristics of dwellings, education, occupation, literacy, religion, sex ratio and density, are negatively associated with overall level of fertility in 1960 but that this effect is felt almost exclusively via the association between these factors with the marriage pattern. The association with the level of marital fertility is negligible, and in most cases positive. Regional fertility differentials could also have been due to differential migration patterns which affected nuptiality patterns (Smith 1975a). Relating regional fertility differentials observed in the 1960s with socio-economic factors, proxied by per capita incomes, and health conditions, proxied by infant mortality rates, Flieger (1975), found no

definite association with respect to the former variable, and a slight positive relationship for the latter. Finally, Pascual (1971), related regional fertility with an index of regional development constructed by combining such indicators as the percent of the population that is urban, the percent of occupied dwelling units with radios, and the percent of male labor force in non-agricultural occupations. She found a nonlinear relationship between these two variables, with fertility ratios (children ever born per 1,000 ever married women ages 35-44 or 45-54) increasing from the least developed areas to some level and decreasing thereafter. For both 1960 and 1968 where such relationship was tested, the lowest fertility was found in the most and in the least developed regional groupings.

Fertility Differentials by Social Groups. Studies on fertility differentials by social groups are many. Among the more intensive of such studies include those of Concepcion (1963, 1964) and Pascual (1971). A recent summary of these studies is found in de Guzman (1978) incorporating data found in the 1973 EDS, while preliminary estimates from the 1978 RPPS are presented in WFS-RPPS (1979). In most general terms fertility differentials have been more commonly noted, mostly in the hypothesized direction including possible nonlinearities, in social groups differing in education of the wife, occupation of the husband, income of the family or of the husband, work status of the woman,

religion, type of households, and place of residence (rural-urban). Such information is suggestive of the factors affecting fertility. However, the lack of controls characterizing most descriptive analyses limits the usefulness of such analyses in assessing the effect of socio-economic factors on fertility. Statistical analysis which controls for several explanatory variables from which further inferences can be made are described below.

Determinants

Some Statistical Associations. Several attempts have been made to distinguish several socio-economic factors that are closely related to fertility by applying multivariate statistical analyses. Among the more clearcut associations so far noted are those between fertility (measured in terms of the number of children ever born) on the one hand, and education and income on the other. Controlling for the timing and duration of marriage, age of woman and residence, Encarnación (1973, 1975) and Canlas and Encarnación (1977) have found that there is a threshold level of education of the wife and family income such that the effect of each respective variable on fertility is positive below some threshold level and negative above it. Such results have been obtained using data from both the 1968 and 1973 national demographic survey.

Among the less clearcut statistical associations are those between fertility and female labor force participation. Earlier studies that controlled for some possible confounding variables (Concepcion, 1972; Feranil and de Guzman, 1977), have suggested that female labor force participation per se may not greatly affect fertility; the type of work done and the place of work, to a large extent are what really matters. Specifically, the findings show that working women in highly urbanized areas, as well as those specifically engaging in economic activities away from their homes, in non-family enterprises or on an employee status generally exhibited lower fertility. Women working in home or family arrangements exhibited fertility levels comparable with those of non-working women.

More recent econometric studies suggest that there is very little direct effect on fertility of female labor participation independent of other possible determinants notably duration of marriage (Herrin, 1980), and likewise very weak sequential relationship is observed between past female employment and current or expected fertility (Herrin, 1980; Rosenzweig, 1975). The observed variations between female employment and fertility can in fact be explained in large part by their dependence on a common set of economic and social factors (Herrin, 1980).

With respect to the effect of mortality on fertility, Harman (1970) found that infant and child mortality had a significant positive

impact on fertility especially among older women. The same relation was observed when the perception of the risk of losing a child as measured by the community infant safety factor was used. Fernandez (1979) and Paqueo and Fernandez (1979), found that life expectancy appears to have an insignificant effect on the fertility of wives with family income below threshold values, while the effect is significantly negative above such threshold.

While the studies cited above (and others not cited) singly and in combination offer insights into the possible interaction between socio-economic factors and demographic variables, the specific mechanisms involved in their interactions have yet to be firmly established. In most cases, the socio-economic variables that are being related to fertility are merely proxies for the major determinants hypothesized. For example, in the threshold-type studies, education and family income below some threshold are taken to represent more basically, the level of health and nutrition of the mother which in turn directly affect her fecundity or capacity to bear live births. Social science research dealing directly with the effect of health and nutrition of mothers on fertility have yet to be conducted systematically in the Philippines. On the other hand, above some threshold values, both education and family income could represent a host of intervening factors which ultimately affect fertility. A review of international literature on the relation

between education and fertility for example, (Cochrane, 1978), suggest that education could affect fertility indirectly through its effect on the age at marriage, contraceptive knowledge, alternative satisfactions, infant mortality, etc. Following a framework developed by Davis and Blake (1956), understanding the determinants of fertility would require more intensive investigations on its more proximate determinants, i.e., those factors related to entry into unions, contraception, and gestation.

Among the proximate determinants of fertility, nuptiality patterns and contraception have received attention in the recent past notably by the studies of Smith and Laing. Only recently have collection of data and analyses have been made on such other proximate determinants as breastfeeding, separation of spouses, age at menarche, etc. (WFS-RPFS, 1979; Laing, 1979).

Nuptiality Patterns. It was mentioned earlier that fertility trends observed in the more recent period especially among younger women appears to be much more a result of changing nuptiality patterns than in declining marital fertility. Thus continuing information of nuptiality patterns is important in understanding the processes behind fertility changes.

A recent synthesis of available analysis on trends and differentials in nuptiality as well as inferences on the social processes

involved have been made by Smith (1978).

Marital status distributions by age obtained from census data from 1903 to 1970 reveal a significant long-term trend which is more pronounced for females than for males. The percentage never married increased steadily especially among younger women ages 15-19 and 20-24 years over the seven decades, with the shift among women 15-19 years of age occurring before 1939, while for women age 20-24 the shift occurred later (Smith, 1978, Table 113). The singulate mean age at marriage have risen from 20.9 years in 1903 to 22.8 years in 1970.

Data from the same sources likewise reveal areal variations in marriage patterns both at the regional and provincial levels. Some of the most sizeable nuptiality differentials have been traced to the effects of selective migration with respect to age, sex and marital status.

The overall nuptiality patterns has also been related to three important social processes as gleaned from the 1973 National Demographic Survey by Smith (1978). These are (a) urbanization, and the expanded role of females in rural-to-urban transfers as they seek jobs and education; (b) the rise of mass education, and the increased participation of females therein; and (c) the growth of the non-agricultural labor force, in which females have also had an increasingly important

role. The first factor tends to lower the sex ratio as migration to urban areas become female-dominated. This reduces the probability of early marriage. Data provided by Smith (1978) as well as the most recent preliminary estimates by WFS-RPES (1979) show increasing age at marriage as educational level increases. Finally, female employment especially in the modern sector and in high level jobs is associated with delayed marriage, partly due to the effect of education, however.

In summary, the sources of nuptiality change over the course of seven decades can be traced, on one hand, to environmental pressure on the traditional systems of land holding in the rural sectors, and on the other, to several interrelated processes of modernization including urbanization, educational expansion and the shifting composition of the labor force. The first of these forces had led to differential migration patterns which in turn affected marriage patterns in both receiving and sending areas in the earlier part of the century; while the second set of forces have played an increasingly larger role during the post-war period especially beginning the 1960s.

If nuptiality is a determinant of fertility, how much of fertility change can be attributed to changes in the marriage pattern? Smith (1975b) analyzing data from 1960 census and the 1973 NDS found that between 1960 and 1970, 15 percent of the decline in overall fertility in the Philippines can be attributed to nuptiality, while for the earlier

period from 1903 to 1960, 53 percent of the decline in overall fertility is due to nuptiality. Furthermore, large regional variations characterize the role of nuptiality in fertility change. Nuptiality account for all the change in overall fertility in three regions, and between 40 to 73 percent in another five regions. In Metro Manila, nuptiality accounted for only less than five percent of the change in overall fertility from 1960 to 1970. Metro Manila already had much lower overall fertility by 1960 compared with the other regions: The more recent decline in overall fertility, therefore, is due mostly to changes in marital fertility through contraception.

Contraception and Other Determinants of Marital Fertility. The evidence on fertility levels and trends presented earlier suggest that the decline in total fertility rate observed in the period from 1965 to 1977 has been due to changes in nuptiality patterns especially among younger women, and to changes in marital fertility for women age 25 years and beyond. Within marriage, however, fertility is proximately determined by several intermediate variables including contraception, involuntary infecundity, voluntary and involuntary abstinence, and induced and spontaneous abortions (Davis and Blake, 1956).

While several studies have been made on contraceptive prevalence, which has increased from 16 percent in 1968 to 42 percent in 1978 (Laing, 1979), very little data are available until recently regarding the other

proximate determinants of fertility. Laing (1979) reports of an analysis of 1974 National Acceptor Survey (NAS) data which indicated that family planning acceptors who breastfed their children were protected for over four months longer, on the average, than acceptors who did not breastfeed. The effect of breastfeeding was equivalent to 0.15 births averted, comparable to the average protection provided by condoms following an acceptance of that method.

In the recently completed 1978 WFS-RPFS survey, information was sought on factors other than age at marriage and use of contraception that have a direct effect on fertility. These included information on breastfeeding, post-partum amenorrhea, regularity of menstruation, frequency of sexual relations, post-partum abstinence, etc.. Preliminary analysis have been made on the data on breastfeeding, post-partum amenorrhea, post-partum sexual abstinence, temporary separation of spouses and age at menarche. The results show in general that the length of breastfeeding, because of its suppressing effect on ovulation, is the factor that exerts the greatest influence on the length of the birth interval. Data for the last closed interval revealed that 85 percent of women 15-49 years of age breastfed their child for an average of 11.2 months. Older women and those who reside in rural areas tended to breastfeed their children slightly longer than other groups of women. The length of the post-partum amenorrhea is positive-

ly related to the length in months of breastfeeding. Women who did not ~~breastfeed~~ or who breastfed only for up to 6 months had a mean amenorrhic period of 3.5 months, while women who breastfed for a full year have a mean amenorrhic period of 8.6 months. Women who breastfed for 30 months have a mean amenorrhic period of 12.5 months.

Post-partum abstinence, if sufficiently prolonged, can lengthen the pregnancy intervals. The duration of post-partum abstinence is usually related to medical reasons, cultural norms, social pressure and individual inclination. The data from the survey suggest, however, that post-partum abstinence does not constitute an important factor in determining the length of either the open or the last closed pregnancy interval. Majority of the women (56 percent) had resumed sexual relation two months after the pregnancy has ended. Higher post-partum abstinence is directly but slightly related to age of woman and indirectly to level of education.

Temporary separation of spouses due to sickness, work or family obligations can also lengthen the pregnancy intervals. The data available, however, suggest that temporary separation is not widespread in the Philippines (only 2 percent reported temporary separation of 3 months or more), nor is it of long duration (the mean length of temporary separation of all women is a mere 0.3 months). None of the background variables show any relationship with duration of separation of

spouses.

Finally, the onset of menstruation, which is a biological factor influenced by the women's general health and nutritional state, ranged from 12 to 19 years of a woman's age, averaging 13.3 years. The data further reveals that younger women tended to have earlier age at menarche. This suggests that the trend in health and nutritional levels in the country over the years may have affected this trend of increasing age at menarche, which in turn could have some influence on overall fertility. The trend towards later age at marriage, however, would tend to minimize the impact of this factor on overall fertility.

In view of the deficiencies of the quality of the data noted by the study, more detailed analyses are required to assess the implications of these proximate determinants of marital fertility.

Value of Children. One of the more recent social science contributions to the understanding of fertility is the value of children (VOC) studies conducted in several countries including the Philippines (e.g., Bulatao, 1975; 1978; 1979a; 1979b; and Bulatao and Arnold, 1977). The main purpose of the study was to identify various domains in which, in the case of the Philippines, the Filipino child is perceived to provide some utility, and to determine whether the degree of a person's concern with these domains relates to childbearing preferences. One

advantage of such an approach is that it puts the conventional economic cost-benefit calculus commonly suggested by economists into the broader social-cultural and psychological context of childbearing decisions. One disadvantage, however, is that the values are related more to fertility preferences rather than to actual fertility. Nevertheless, the results are interesting, and in most cases, reassuring for those who have confined their investigations solely to the economic determinants of fertility.

In the more detailed analysis of the data obtained from a national sample of 1,691 wives and 382 of their husband in 1975, Bulatao (1978) reports that the value domains within which children are considered are several: (a) the domain of instrumental assistance or practical help; (b) the domain of interactions that are socio-emotionally rewarding; (c) the domain of psychological appreciation; (d) the domain of coping with social pressures; (e) the domain of marital security and closeness; (f) and the domain of family and kin preservation. The instrumental-assistance value, including financial help expected from children, old age security, help with household chores, and caring for other children were found to be highly salient as well as among the most central values. However, the second domain, the domain of interactions that are socio-emotionally rewarding such as companionship the children provide, the opportunity to give and receive love and affection, happiness from

being with children, etc., were about equal in salience to instrumental-assistance values and perhaps marginally ahead in centrality. The third and fourth domains were found to be both low in salience and in centrality while the fifth and the sixth were low in salience but high in centrality.

The four major disvalues include: (a) emotional strains of having children, including worries about childbearing; (b) financial problems caused or aggravated by children; (c) restriction on parents' activities and limitations on time for oneself or one's spouse; and (d) concern about overpopulation. The results of the analysis indicate that financial costs were less salient than worries of child rearing, but appeared more central and ranked first in importance among the disvalues. The other two sets of disvalues appeared most less frequently and received less importance; indicating that few respondents see a child in the context of opportunity costs or the social costs of overpopulation.

The analysis also revealed that the contribution of a child in each value domain depends on at least two factors, its sex and its birth order. Childbearing intentions are influenced by different considerations as a family grows. The analysis also revealed that Filipino parents appear to value children for largely individualistic reasons. The respondents tend to be less influenced by pressures from relatives, from the community, or from religion as reasons for child-

bearing. "Such pressures may operate nevertheless through the value themselves, through couples internalizing and identifying as their own personal motives the dominant cultural patterns to valuing children." (p. 171). Finally, changes in the perceived values and disvalues of children may occur as modernization proceeds.

In summary, the VOC studies, by providing better understanding of the values of children should provide significant insights into fertility behavior as well as guide efforts toward fertility control that consider and, possibly compensates for, the values that may be lost as families reduce their size.

Consequences of Fertility Trends

Relative to the studies dealing with the correlates of fertility, very little quantitative studies have been done on the actual consequences of fertility change, either at the macro or the micro level. Part of the reason is the lack of adequate and reliable historical data that would allow such quantitative analysis. Another reason is perhaps the fact that the persuasive rhetoric of the 1960s both internationally and locally regarding the adverse consequences of rapid population growth has convinced government authorities of the need to launch public programs to reduce the birth rate. Once such commitment has been obtained, there was little need for more detailed studies showing the generally

held but often simplistic view that rapid population growth will have adverse consequences to the national well-being.

A review of available Philippine studies dealing with implications of high fertility is made below.

Macro Studies Largely influenced by the earlier work of Coale and Hoover (1958) on the impact of alternative fertility trends, several studies have been conducted in the Philippines to examine the impact of alternative fertility trends on such macro variables as per capita income, saving and investments, and employment. In general, these macro-level studies are simulation exercises to determine the economic implication of alternative fertility trends (or alternative population growth paths). They do not therefore reflect actual consequences of past demographic trends. Notable among these earlier studies are those by Lampman (1967) and Ruprecht (1967, 1969). In examining some interactions between economic growth and population change in the Philippines, Lampman (1967) asked two questions: (a) what is the economic price or cost associated with the post-war acceleration of population growth; and what economic benefits would flow from a gradual return to a lower rate of population growth; and (b) given the present rate of population growth, what costs must be paid to accelerate the rate of economic growth. The answer to the first question is based on a simple mechanical exercise of assuming a given GNP, then calculating the per capita

GNP under constant and a sharp decline in fertility. Predictably the result would be a higher per capita under the latter than in the former fertility regime. Similarly, given the level of GNP, since population will be larger under constant fertility, and that a larger population would require larger investments and social expenditures, the amount available for consumption will necessarily be lower under a higher fertility regime than under a declining one. Hence, consumption per capita will be lower under constant fertility.

With respect to the second question, the price of growth under the high rate of population growth situation will tend to be higher in both the aggregative level (more capital, more labor, more technical advance, and so forth), and in the intersectoral and inter-group level (more risk, loss of preferred and secured status for some, and considerable change in the way of life for all).

Ruprecht (1967), on the other hand, developed an econometric model which allows the projection of GNP as a function of land, capital, labor and time, and two submodels which allow for the projection of three alternative population growth, and of savings and investment. Having projected GNP, population growth rates, investment rates, etc., under different conditions of fertility control, the advantage in terms of per capita GNP of immediate fertility control over no or postponed

control is demonstrated. One important implication of the exercise is that the initiation of fertility decline cannot wait until its adverse economic effects become apparent. By that time it may be too late as the population momentum at that point is overpowering.

Ruprecht (1979) in a subsequent study attempted to analyze the impact of alternative population trends and consequent growth of income on the structure of the economy (in the input-output sense), on the assumption that different rates of population growth would have somewhat different effects on different sectors of the economy, with the growth of some sectors being retarded, and the growth of other perhaps accelerated. He also examined the employment implications of the resulting structural effect and at a more disaggregated level, the structural implications on several manufacturing sectors. The results of the exercise suggest that for the Philippines, "a reduction in fertility would contribute to an economic structure which emphasized non-agricultural activities to a greater extent, was more capable of providing full employment, and which produced in the manufacturing sector a greater inducement for subsequent growth." (p. 11).

Among other limitations of studies of the type represented above, is the omission of the cost of birth control program necessary to effect the fertility reduction in the first place. Such cost could in fact be sizeable and hence there is a need to explicitly consider

this cost in analyzing the macroeconomic benefits to be derived from reduced fertility.

The recent work by Paqueo (1974; 1977) specifically addressed this issue of the cost of the public intervention to assess the implications of fertility reduction on the economy. In general, Paqueo constructed a family planning submodel that allows translation of the number of family planning acceptors into births averted. This submodel is then grafted into a larger econometric model which is a modification of an earlier economic-demographic model developed by Encarnación, Mangahas, Paqueo and Smith (1974), to analyze the economic effects of the birth control program.

In general, the results of the simulation exercise by Paqueo suggest that the effects of birth control on per capita income and real wage rate is significant. Family incomes, however, appear largely unaffected and the effect on the traditional investment to output ratio seems minimal. Of considerable significance is the finding that while per capita incomes tend to increase, aggregate output due to a relatively smaller labor force is actually reduced. The pay-off of the fertility reduction, therefore, is essentially due to the decrease in the number of persons sharing national output and not from increased production and saving. As Paqueo (1977) concludes: "This observation

would suggest that population control does not necessarily lead to more rapid growth defined as sustained increase in total output. This interpretation should, of course, be qualified by the fact that many causal processes whereby family planning could enhance productivity and capital (human and material) formation are not included in the model. Nevertheless, in the light of the debate regarding development versus population control, it would seem appropriate to end this study by noting that family planning is not a substitute for effective development policies." (p. 215).

In addition to the above studies looking at the probable consequences of alternative fertility (and therefore population growth) trends on per capita income and other aspects related to it, several studies have looked at specific sectors of the national economy that will be affected by population growth. These sectors include health, education, food, housing, natural resources and environment (Calzado, et al., 1978; dela Paz, 1978; Intengan, 1978; Luna, 1978; etc.). These studies generally suggest that while rapid population growth exerts pressure on the demand for basic services, the problems associated with their provision are more directly due to a set of factors more complex than just a rapid increase in population would imply.

Micro-level Studies. Turning now to the micro level impact of fertility change, several studies have focused on the impact of family size on family savings and expenditures (Peek, 1974; Power, 1971; Mangahas, 1974), on morbidity rates (Layo, 1977) and nutritional status of household members (Battad, 1977).

Using data from the PSSM of the BCS for 1961, 1965 and 1971, Peek (1974) examined the effects of family size among others on household savings, defined alternatively as per capita savings, per household savings and per adult equivalent savings. Among the tentative conclusions are as follows: (a) gross dependency burden (not taking into account the contribution of the dependents to family income) has a negative impact on the savings rate which is only to a small extent, offset by economies of scale in consumption; (b) there is a negative life cycle effect on savings in terms of expected dependency burden, which more than offsets the positive economies of scale effect of savings.

One limitation of Peek's study is that the effect of family size on family income is not explicitly considered in the model. Such effect, however, is considered by a study conducted by Mangahas (1974). This study attempted to quantify two processes by which family size may affect family expenditure (and as a residual, savings). Firstly,

he considered the relationship between family size and the number of working family members. The size of the family's working force then affects family income and hence, family expenditure. Secondly, the study considered the relationship between family size and the number of adult-equivalent consumers in the family. The latter variable, jointly with family income determines family expenditure. The data used were the Family Income and Expenditure Surveys (FIES) of 1957, 1961, 1965 and 1971, of the Bureau of the Census and Statistics, and the National Demographic Survey (NDS) of 1968.

The interrelationships suggested are as follows: Increases in family size leads to increases in the family labor force and in turn to the number of working members, which in combination with the age of the household head, the education of the wife, and (in urban areas) the labor force participation of the wife, then determines family income. In the second process, family size determines the number of equivalent adult members in the family. In combination with family income, this in turn determines the consumption level for the family.

With respect to the potential effect of family size on morbidity, Layo (1979) found that the most important determinants of total illness in the household as measured by the magnitude and significance of the regression coefficients are the number of household members 0-5 years old and the number of older members age 45 and over controlling for

such factors as education, per capita income, rural-urban residence, quality of drainage, of ventilation and of water, health beliefs and knowledge. For acute illness, the best predictors continue to be the demographic variables especially the number of household members age 0-5 years old.

Battad (1977) in a study of the determinants of nutritional status of Laguna preschoolers of 1975, found a negative effect of the number of children less than six years on a measure of child nutritional status, controlling for such factors as income per capita, education of the mother, age and sex of the child, mother's nutritional status and incidence of chronic illness. The measure of child nutritional status is the ratio of the child's actual weight to the standard weight for age and sex.

The main explanation for such negative relationship is as follows: the more young children, the greater the time inputs into child care by the mother and other household members, the harder it gets to meet each child's nutrition needs. Battad also states that the negative marginal effect of the number of children was larger for 2-3 years olds than for 4-6 year olds. This is probably explained by the fact that children age 2-3 years are still evolving feeding habits, are just starting to exercise self reliance, and still need much supervision from the mother. By the 4-6 years of the child, a child is more capable of

handling the shift in the mother's attention but the net effect may still be a lowering of nutritional status.

Popkin (1976) found that an addition to the number of children aged zero to 6 years increases the Laguna mothers' time for child care. That the nutritional status of children aged 0-2 was not significantly affected by an additional preschooler probably indicates that the Laguna mothers concentrate more attention to the newborn or younger preschoolers than to the older ones. Boulier (1976) found that an additional infant increased mother's time for child care more than in additional older preschooler and that the increase moved according to family size. In larger families, more older children substituted for the mother's time, hence, the increase was not as large as in small families. This substitution of mother's care may contribute to the decline in older preschoolers' nutrition status.

Impact of Public Policy

Studies dealing with the impact of public interventions on fertility, other than that of the family planning program, are virtually non-existent. The studies thus far available (e.g., Herrin (1979), on the impact of rural infrastructure; and Paqueo (1978), on the impact of public health and education) are as yet too tentative to provide firm guidelines for possible public policy redirection or program

redesign. Nevertheless, there is growing interest in evaluating the impact on demographic trends, notably fertility, of public programs primarily designed with non-demographic objectives in mind. While such evaluation activities currently suffer methodological and research design problems, such studies could have significant contribution to policy-making and program design in the near future as studies, e.g., the ESIA/WID Project, begin to cumulate.

The past and current planning and design of public programs, therefore, can still be characterized as essentially population-responsive. Estimates of age-sex composition and geographical distribution of the population are virtually the only demographic inputs in designing the scale and coverage of public programs. Designing public programs with a view to also affect demographic variables has yet to wait for more definitive results from social science research on the topic.

Towards a Research Agenda

On the basis of the foregoing discussion of of social science research bearing upon the relationship between fertility and economic development, several areas for further research seem worth exploring.

Levels, Trends and Differentials. First, we have noted that more and more demographic data of reasonably good quality are becoming available. These data sets include the censuses, the regular national

demographic surveys, and the several rounds of area fertility surveys. While determining the levels and trends at the national context will be a continuing task, there is greater need to now emphasize the estimation of regional and areal differentials in fertility levels and trends, to pinpoint which areas are lagging behind in the overall trend in fertility decline. In addition to regional or areal differentials, we need to also continually monitor fertility differentials by social groups to pinpoint which sub-groups of the population are still exhibiting high fertility. Such information are essential for designing policies and programs that will effectively make a difference in reducing national fertility. This information are also important from welfare point of view, to the extent that high fertility among some groups is shown to be associated with negative effects on their socio-economic and health welfare.

Determinants. With respect to the determinants of fertility, several types of research can be suggested. First we have noted significant regional fertility differentials both in terms of levels and trends. Nevertheless, we have practically no studies in the more recent years examining the determinants of such differentials. Demographic surveys often collect only very limited information on socio-economic characteristics of the respondents and practically none on the communities where the respondents reside. It will be extremely

helpful in understanding the current fertility declines observed in many regions, to relate such demographic information with corresponding area-level information on socio-economic factors likely to have affected such observed fertility trends, including the role of family planning inputs. One viable research approach might be to relate fertility trends with an analytical description of the socio-economic changes that have occurred in the area combined with the knowledge of the timing of the availability and use of family planning inputs.

At a more disaggregated level than regions there seems to be a greater need for understanding fertility change as they occur at the community or village level. At this level there seems to be a greater potential for combining institutional analysis with the usual micro-level statistical studies characteristic of past approaches in the Philippines. At this level, one needs to delineate the patterns of social organization in the community and examine how these patterns influence individual economic and demographic decisions. Micro-level decisions are to be viewed not only as responses to opportunities and constraints prevailing at the household level, but at the community level as well.

Several issues can be investigated within such a research framework, including the economic roles of children, the distributional

consequences of reproductive behavior, the impact of demographic factors on the economic and social structure of the community as well as the influence of such structure on fertility behavior.

Consequences of Fertility Trends. Here what has often been a neglected area in Philippine social science research is the distributional impact of alternative fertility trends. Studies that shed light on this issue could provide indicators as to where (among what groups) efforts to implement fertility policy would be to the greatest national advantage (taking distributional goals into consideration). These studies might also suggest the advisability of policies of other kinds that would attempt to compensate for the distributive outcomes of current reproductive patterns.

Demographic Impact of Public Interventions. As stated earlier, studies of this sort are just beginning. As such theoretically and methodologically sound research designs have yet to be developed. Cumulative experience in this area, however, could not only advance the state of the arts, but also begin to provide some guidelines for possible restructuring of development strategies and programs to maximize the attainment of traditional development goals and of the demographic objectives as well. Emphasis may be placed on evaluating those programs geared towards raising the levels of educational opportunities for both males and females, improving health and reducing mortality,

promoting greater female participation, etc.; that is, programs already desirable on traditional grounds and which already expend large amount of the national budget. Knowledge of their possible additional indirect demographic impact could lead to a possible modification of such programs to maximize their overall developmental impact, or could lead to policies and programs that will minimize their possible adverse demographic consequences.

INTERNAL MIGRATION

Patterns of Migration

The cumulation of migration studies since the 1960s based upon census information and more recently upon the 1973 NDS has provided a broad picture of the size and pattern of population movements over the century.

That substantial population movements has occurred in the Philippines is evidenced by the fact that in 1960 12.6 percent of the population of all ages (representing some 3.4 million persons) were living in a region different from the one in which they were born, and in 1970 this lifetime migration figure was 13.2 percent or 4.8 million persons. Even in the much shorter period between 1960 to 1970, 8.3 percent of the population 10 years old and over had moved to another region within the decade. This do not reflect population movements occurring within regions, and the multiple moves occurring between birth and the period of enumeration.

Information on lifetime migration up to 1960 point to the predominance of long distance movements involving either inter-provincial or interregional transfers. This is characterized by relatively unidirectional, frontierward, male-dominated streams

from rural origins to rural destinations. During the period 1960 to 1970, while long distance flows continued to be a major component of the total migration pattern, the directions and social compositions have changed. Counterstreams to the dominant ones have appeared, and a centripetal pull to the metropolitan region has steadily grown replacing to a degree the centrifugal drive to the frontiers. These patterns contributed to the predominance of female migrants so much in evidence in data for the recent past. (Smith, 1977).

Data on immigration and out-migration rates from the 1960 and 1970 census compiled by Perez (1978) reveal which regions gained and lost populations through such movements. Prior to the 1960s, Cagayan Valley, Southern Tagalog including Manila, and Mindanao were the major receiving areas, while the Ilocos, Central Luzon, and the Visayas were the major sending areas. Between 1960 and 1970, Southern Tagalog and two regions in Mindanao were the main receivers while two regions in the Visayas and Manila were the major out-migration areas. The out-migration from Manila represented in most part the suburban movement into the now Metro Manila and the adjacent areas of Southern Tagalog and Central Luzon.

Determinants of Internal Migration

Studies on the determinants of migration in the Philippines focused both on the determinants at the macro level (interprovincial or interregional migration) and on the determinants of household migration. Examples of these types of studies will be briefly described here.

Interprovincial Determinants. Using the 1960 census data that cross-tabulated the population by province of birth and by province of residence, Zosa (1973) attempted to examine the relative effects on interprovincial migration rate (number of people born in province *i* but enumerated in province *j*) of selected provincial socio-economic characteristics and of selected indicators of "movement-modifying" variables between origin and destination provinces. The lagged socio-economic variables basically representing standards of living and employment opportunities were indexed by such factors as: (a) the difference in percentage of families using radios in 1948; (b) the difference in percentage of males employed respectively in extractive activities, in manufacturing industries and in supportive services in 1939; and (c) the difference of unemployed males in 1948. On the other hand, the "movement-modifier" variables which are assumed to facilitate migration are measures of physical and

social distance between provinces; the latter for example being indexed by major ethnic affiliation and by frontier status of the province. Severe multicollinearity among the above variables limit the results of the study even after prior selection on a larger set of variables have been made. Nevertheless one set of regression results (when all variables were included), indicated that among the significant variables the socio-economic pull factors (radio usage, extractive activities, manufacturing activities) were positively related to interprovincial flows. On the other hand of the facilitator variables, ethnic factor and frontier factor were positively related, while distance and regional similarity were negatively related to interprovincial flows. All variables together accounted for only 15 percent of total variations.

These results interpreted broadly are not inconsistent from what we would suspect from the earlier description of migration patterns. Movements have been directed toward areas where employment opportunities either in agricultural (rural and frontier destinations) or manufacturing activities (urban destinations) are available, and these areas often were of long distances and across regions from the areas of out-migration.

Interregional Determinants. Zachariah and Pernia (1975) looked at the correlations between 10 socio-economic indicators at both the origin and destination areas, and interregional migration during the 1969-70 period. Statistically positive significant zero-order correlations were obtained for the following variables: (a) total population in 1960, at origin and destination; (b) average family income in 1965, at destination; (c) average family income in 1965 of the bottom 30 percent of the families at destination and (d) unused agricultural land at destination. Statistically negative zero-order correlations were obtained for (a) rural poor as percent of rural population at destination, and (b) urban unemployment rate in 1970 at destination and (c) percent rural population who completed primary education in 1970. An important conclusion from these findings is that inter-regional migration in the Philippines during 1960-70 was determined more by the socio-economic conditions in the receiving regions than by the conditions at the origin, i.e., the "pull" factors appeared more significant than the "push" factors. A step-wise regression of 20 independent variables (10 at origin and 10 at destination) including the above variables having significant zero order correlations, indicated that only three variables made any significant contribution to explanation of the variation in inter-regional migration. These are the total population in 1960 at region

of origin, average family income in 1965 at the region of destination, and total acreage of unused agricultural land potential in 1973 at region of destination. These three variables together explained 45 percent of the total variation in the interregional migration, with average family income having relatively larger effect than the other two.

Except for the variable total population which do not readily suggest itself to easy interpretation (unless it is taken to represent density-related lack of agricultural employment opportunity), the results appear consistent with earlier observations. The major interregional flows in the 1960-70 period has been to the more urbanized and developed Southern Tagalog and Manila where average income have been relatively high and to a significant but lesser extent to Mindanao where agricultural land potential has not yet been fully exploited.

Individual and Household Determinants. The determinants of individual and household migration decisions can be inferred from data on reasons for leaving previous residence, and reasons for choosing current residence on the one hand, and from data of migrant characteristics on the other. Analysis of the same set data within a framework that allows for statistical control of relevant variables

further enhance our inferences regarding the determinants of migration. Data from the 1973 NDS has been the main source of information for the above types of analyses thus far.

Data obtained from the 1973 NDS survey on reasons for leaving previous place of residence and reasons for choosing current residence are tabulated into four categories. These categories are: (a) job related reasons; (b) familial reasons; (c) education related reasons; and (d) others. (Perez, 1978). The data show that for both lifetime migrants (birth to 1965) and for period migrants (1965 to 1973) who provided the necessary information, the economic factor dominated the other reasons for leaving previous residence. Job related reasons were mentioned by 48 and 40 percent of the respective migrants, followed by 31 and 37 percent respectively for familial reasons, and 18 and 14 percent respectively for educational reasons. The remaining migrants mentioned other reasons.

A second set of tabulation was the reasons for choosing current residence. For both lifetime migrants and for period migrants who provided such information 42 and 44 percent respectively mentioned familial reasons, 18 and 16 percent respectively mentioned job related reasons, a mere 2 and 5 percent mentioned education related reasons, while 38 and 35 percent respectively mentioned other reasons. Using

this set of data from the same source, one observes that the role of economic factors was swamped by the importance of familial reasons (e.g., to accompany or join paternal or other relatives, get married, etc.) in the migrant's choice the current residence in either 1965 or 1973. How do we make heads or tails with these information?

Given a lexicographic preference ordering scheme and on the basis of an earlier analysis by De Voretz (1972) one possible interpretation to the above seemingly conflicting sets of data may be as follows: Migrants place great emphasis on income gains from a move when deciding whether or not to move. Once the income gain criterion is achieved, the final decision on destination must meet other criteria including familial, and other factors. Another possible ordering might be to order education-related factors first, and once this criterion is satisfied, then the choice of destination depend on whether or not other criteria are satisfied.

Another set of data from which one can infer factors associated with migration is to look at the characteristics of migrants. The 1973 NDS provide such source of data, providing information on the migrant of his/her educational attainment, occupation, cash income, in addition to age and sex. Understanding of the relative significance of such factors in migration, however, is better made if the analysis

allows for adequate statistical control for other variables, and when such personal characteristics are combined with household and areal factors that could affect the decision to migrate. Analyses such as this have been made by Pernia (1978; 1979).

On the basis of information from the 1973 NDS, factors affecting migration decision from 1965 to 1973 by all persons, by household heads, and by persons who are single were investigated by Pernia (1978) for each sex. The independent variables included (a) age of the migrant at mid-point of the period; (b) education as reported in 1973; (c) occupation as reported in 1965; (d) marital status in 1965; (e) household size in 1973; (f) cash income in 1972; (g) presence of relatives at destination; (h) non-agricultural residence in 1965; and (i) size of municipality of residence in 1973. Pernia's major findings suggest the following relationships. The level of education increases the probability of migration for all three types of persons, but slightly more so for male heads and male individuals than others. The probability of migration is higher for male individuals and single males, the higher the prestige level of previous occupation (i.e., white collar vs. blue collar occupations). The probability of migration is not significantly directly related to expected income at destination except for female heads and single males. For male individuals and male heads, it would appear that

prospective employment or occupational mobility is a more important intervening consideration for migration than expected income per se. Employment at destination, however, is significantly related to male incomes at destination. For female individuals, and single females, the results suggest that the prospective education is a more significant intervening factor for both prospective occupational mobility and prospective income. Kinship types significantly increase the probability of migration of all persons, especially of females, indicating that kinship ties are important facilitators of final decisions to migrate at particular destinations. Finally, structural factors associated with non-agricultural residence at origin raises the probability of migration of individuals, but not of heads or single persons of either sex; and factors associated with larger population sizes of destination areas tend to increase probability of migration among individuals, and among female heads and single females.

Thus far determinants of migration either on the aggregate (interprovincial or interregional) or at the micro level (above) was viewed in terms of all types of migration. There are various types of streams to be sure, and the 1973 NDS has provided information on the relative sizes of these. In the earlier period (birth to 1965)

the more significant streams were the rural-to-rural migration (33 percent) rural-to-urban (30 percent) and rural-to-metro (13 percent). These accounted for three-fourths of the total volume of migration. From 1965 to 1973, the rural-to-urban flow became more significant (25 percent), followed by rural-to-rural (20 percent), rural-to-metro (15 percent) and urban-to-rural (10 percent) together accounting for 70 percent of total migration. An additional flow, metro-to-metro accounted for 13 percent.

Pernia (1979) extended his earlier analysis (Pernia, 1978) to study the determinants of migration by type of sectoral flow, more specifically by rural-to-rural, rural-to-urban, rural-to-metro and urban-to-rural flows. In addition he looked at the determinants by type of migrants, namely chronic and return migrants. Chronic migrants are those who move two or three times to different destinations; while return migrants are those who move back to the area of origin. In contrast, stable migrants are those who move once and stay put at destination. From the 1973 NDS data, 19 percent of the 7.9 million migrants in 1973 were classified as chronic migrants while 7 percent were return migrants. Factors affecting chronic migration are expected to vary from those determining return migration, and those affecting the decision to move for the first time. The socio-economic consequences of such types of moves

presumably would differ from the one-time types of migration.

Using the same explanatory variables as in the previous study, Pernia's findings suggest the following major relationships. The level of education increases the probability of migration from rural to urban, for both sexes and from rural to metro for males, but decreases the probability of urban-to-rural migration for both sexes and from rural-to-rural for females.

An interesting reversal of the importance of the effects of previous occupation and income at destination is revealed between the earlier study of migration involving all flows and this study of intersectoral flows. In the intersectoral flow regressions, income at destination increases the probability of all intersectoral migration for both sexes, except female migration from urban to rural areas. On the other hand, the previous occupation of the migrant was generally not a significant factor in all intersectoral migration except the migration of males from rural to urban. There seems to be no clear explanation of this result as yet. Disregarding the significance of the coefficients, however, one notes that a high occupational status at origin is positively related to rural-urban and rural-metro migration except for females in the latter flow, but that high occupational status at origin is negatively related to the

reverse flow from urban to rural destinations. It appears, therefore, that the higher the education and the higher the occupational status the lesser is the tendency to migrate from urban to rural areas.

The results also suggest that those moving to the metro area come directly from agricultural areas rather than non-agricultural rural or urban areas, while the move to urban areas means a move to large urban places or municipalities. The movement towards rural areas, however, tends to be more towards smaller areas, perhaps more frontier type areas.

As in the previous study, the presence of kin is a significant facilitator in all types of intersectoral moves.

With respect to the factors affecting chronic migration, the following are some of the major findings. In addition to the commonly observed negative effects of age and the positive effects of education, the factors occupational status and expected income appear significant for males to make repeated moves than it is for females; on the other hand, females tend to make repeated moves when kin are present and towards large places.

For return migration, age has a negative effect while neither expected income, previous occupational status nor educational level

have any significant effect. The sign of the education coefficient, however, is negative suggesting that more highly educated migrants are less likely to return to the place of origin. Finally, presence of kin significantly makes return migration more likely.

In summary, in addition to the age and sex selectivity of migrants, migrants of higher educational levels, higher previous occupational status, higher expectation of income gain at destination, among others, have varying effects on the probability of migration depending upon the different type of moves, and upon whether the move involves repeated moves or a return to place of origin. Younger, relatively well endowed individuals in terms of occupation and education, tend to move to areas of great opportunity, and are facilitated by presence of kins at destination. The latter factor however may simply mean that the kin of perhaps similar personal endowment had, at a previous period, responded to the same set of factors as the present migrant. This selectivity of migrants on several characteristics have important implications for both sending and destination areas, as the few studies in the Philippines analyzing such potential impact have shown.

Consequences of Internal Migration

One can look at the consequences of migration at the macro level from the point of view of the area of origin and the area of destination, and from the micro level in terms of the impact on the migrants themselves and of the families they left behind.

Macro Level Consequences. A review of international literature on the economic impact of rapid migration, especially of the rural to urban or metropolitan areas suggests that such impact could include: (a) increases in urban unemployment and underemployment; (b) fragmentation of the urban labor market into traditional and modern sectors; (c) increased congestion and environmental pollution; and (d) greater expenditures on and/or greater shortages of public services. (IRG, 1979). The quantitative effect of migration, independent of such factors as the natural growth of urban areas, the character of industrialization and labor absorptive capacities of urban industries, as well as the administrative efficiency in the provision of basic services such as housing, water, etc., however has yet to be determined in the Philippines.

These are all potential negative effects. What of positive effects? One can infer from the previous discussion on destinations

of migrants, that the outmigration to the frontier areas characteristic of the earlier migration to Mindanao and Cagayan Valley have helped develop the agricultural potential of these areas. Such suggestion, however, has yet to be put to strict empirical test.

What about the demographic impact of migration in general? The age-sex selectivity of migrants directly affects age-sex composition of both the sending and the receiving areas, and this could have significant impact on nuptiality patterns and therefore on overall fertility, (Smith, 1975). In addition the migrant selectivity in terms of income and education, both correlates of fertility, could directly affect overall area fertility in both sending and destination areas. In addition to this type of selectivity, urban migrants may be exposed considerably to fertility reducing forces in the urban area, and, therefore, tend to contribute to the maintenance of rural-urban differentials. (Hendershot, 1971).

What is the impact of out-migration from the point of view of the sending area? Again, some hypotheses have been suggested in the international literature including the possible effect on agricultural productivity as a consequences of the migrant selectivity in age, sex, education, and skills. However, it has also been suggested that the possible correlation between productivity decline and out-

migration may be explained by the operation of common antecedent factors such as soil quality and population density. One can also include the social and economic structure defining patterns of land tenure and access to modern agricultural technology as common antecedent factors. Several important issues can be raised, the lack of studies thus far have hindered resolution of the above and other issues, however.

Inferences concerning the possible impact of out-migration on the living standards of the rural poor has been made by Zachariah and Pernia (1975) and by Pernia (1977). The fact that out-migrants are selective of age, education, skills and income may be inhibiting factors to the development of areas of origin. Secondly, the potential positive impact of remittances and of return migration may not be significant enough to make a difference. First, migration tends to be long-distance moves which reduces the probability of close contact between out-migrants and their areas of origin. Secondly, return migration tends to be selective of characteristics negatively related to potentials for development, i.e., older persons of lower education and skills have been shown to be the ones more likely to return. One possible positive impact of out-migration, however, is that such moves may have been effective in reducing

population pressure on the land in the poor regions. Such inferences, however, merely suggest areas for more thorough quantitative investigation.

What are the consequences of migration on the migrants themselves? Some evidence are available that migrants have raised their occupational status and incomes as a result of the move, independent of other factors. Pernia (1978). On the other hand, evidence have been presented on problems of migrant adjustments, economic as well as social, at the areas of destination, especially when such migrants end up in the squatter or slum sections of urban areas (e.g., Lopez and Hollensteiner, 1976). These migrants often have low educational levels making them less able to obtain well-paying jobs in the urban modern sector.

When sets of studies such as those of Pernia (1978) are juxtaposed with the studies such as those of Lopez and Hollensteiner (1976), one can attempt to present a more complete picture of the consequences of the migration process. Migrants who tend to be positively selected in the areas of origin in terms of age, education and income, immediately adjust themselves pretty well in urban settings, getting the better jobs and raising their incomes. Migrants who were negatively selected, on the other hand, tend to end up with low paying,

unskilled, intermittent jobs, thereby exacerbating their initial poverty at the area of origin. In assessing the determinants and consequences of migration, both these groups and other social groups of migrants must be taken into account. And this suggests a broader approach to migration analysis: the need to examine the effect that different factors have on specific types of population movement, as well as on migrants and potential migrants from different social classes. While the relatively few studies based on a large set of national survey data have gone a long way in determining the differential effect of socio-economic factors on various inter-sectoral and types of migrants, much more need to be done to move further at a more disaggregated level to examine the differential effect of these factors on various social groups if a more complete picture of the determinants and consequences of migration is to be obtained.

Migration of Women.

One social group in which more detailed analysis have been made recently is the female migrants. Eviota and Smith (1979) compiled and analyzed data from censuses and from the 1973 NDS which revealed several interesting insights regarding the relationship between socio-

economic factors and the migration pattern of this particular social group. First, women are numerically dominant in almost all kinds of contemporary Philippine migration, and they constitute a large majority in the recent urbanward migration of teenaged and young adult cohorts. Secondly, the pattern of female-dominant migration is an emergent one. As described above, the earlier migrations were male-dominated, and frontierward. In the postwar, post independence period, however, the new female-dominated pattern has become evident. Thirdly, two of the most prominent social changes in the 20th century could possibly be linked with female migration to cities, namely: (a) the growth of education, and (b) the growth of the urban labor market. With respect to education the evidence suggest that the mean level of educational attainment has risen across the population as a whole, and that sex differentials in educational attainment and literacy have been reduced substantially. These trends, combined with the selectivity of recent female migrants as well as males on educational attainment, have contributed to the drawing of relatively well-educated women into rural-to-urban migration streams.

With respect to the second factor, the evidence indicate that labor market changes in the metropolitan economy has led to occupational changes as well, and women now possessing equally high level of

education as men have moved into occupations formerly held by men. Data compiled by Eviota and Smith (1979) show that in 1903 professional and technical occupations were heavily dominated by men (sex ratio of 4,686 males per 1000 females), by 1939, the sex ratio has declined to 968 and in 1970, it has declined further to 456. Women, however, tended to be mostly confined to "professors and teachers" and "nurses, etc." On the other hand, we also find dramatic improvement in the sex ratio overall (2,449 in 1903, 639 in 1939 and 256 in 1970) in the "services, sports and related occupations", but little change in the distribution of women's occupation within the broad category. In 1903 as in 1970 roughly 90 percent of all female service workers were "domestics".

Looking now at the evidence showing the most common urban occupations of migrant and urban-born men and women based on 1973 NDS data, the authors observed a pattern of extreme occupational differentiation by migrant status and sex. Native working women tend to occupy the high prestige occupations while working female migrants occupy the service occupations, mostly housekeepers, cooks, maids, etc. The segregation is sharper in the Metropolitan area among in-migrants from rural areas, and among recent migrants. This

differentiation is all the more disturbing when compared with males. Educated male migrants tend to occupy white collar and craftsmen occupations while relatively educated women migrants are still predominantly in the service sectors. The picture improves among female migrants with some exposure to college or university - 75 percent of female working migrants are in white collar employment; however, these are mainly in clerical and sales categories, and still 20 percent with college education are in the service sectors.

An important issue that deserves careful study suggest itself, but more forcefully summarized by Eviota and Smith (1979): "...what [do] these very prominent aggregate patterns mean for the life chances of the people involved". (p. 18).

Public Policy

The preceding discussion on the areal and micro-level determinants of voluntary migration suggests that public policy and programs that directly or indirectly affect the spatial distribution of employment opportunities and of social services such as education, could have a significant influence on the migration patterns. In fact, among the demographic processes, migration is perhaps the most

sensitive to socio-economic changes. Very little empirical assessment, however, has yet been made on the impact of such policies and programs on the observed pattern of migration.

Policies and programs that potentially have an influence on voluntary migration would include (a) the package of policies and measures associated with the import-substitution industrialization program of the government in the 1950's and 1960's; (b) the shift in public policy thrust in the 1970s towards rural/agricultural development, exports promotion, regional dispersal of industry, and infrastructural development in both urban and rural areas. An assessment of the impact of these broad policies and programs on internal migration especially rural-urban migration has yet to be made.

Another set of policies and programs might be categorized into those that attempt to cope with the problems brought about by internal migration. Most of these programs deal with problems of urban growth especially in the Metro Manila; such as housing programs, squatter relocation, slum reconstruction, etc. Again very little social science research has been done to evaluate the impact of these programs.

One can notice a certain asymmetry in the role of public policy in influencing and responding to internal migration. On the one hand,

the earlier public policies and programs seems to have been implemented without explicit regard to their population distribution consequences except perhaps for the resettlement and relocation schemes. Part of the reason is that these public policies and programs had objectives which were problem-specific and were desirable in themselves. On the other hand, policies and programs that bear upon the problems of urban growth tend to point strongly to rural-urban migration as a main culprit in the emergence of such problems. Clearly, much more needs to be known about how specifically certain aspects of public programs influence internal migration, and about how internal migration contribute to urban problems before one can design appropriate programs both to influence the pattern of, and to respond to the effects of internal migration.

Towards a Research Agenda

In view of the fact that public policies and programs have multiple objectives, it is difficult to isolate policies and program that are geared solely to influence or to respond to the effects of, internal migration. Yet to be able to explicitly assess the impact of public policy and programs on internal migration it will be useful, on the basis of what is already suggested by the studies on the determinants and consequences of internal migration to make a

comprehensive descriptive inventory of public policies and programs that influence internal migration. (See Pernia and Paderanga (1989) for a review of policies influencing spatial development).

From such an inventory one can proceed to evaluate the impact of efficiency of such programs in influencing internal migration. Such policies and programs could be divided into (a) direct policies, e.g., resettlement or relocation schemes, or (b) indirect policies, e.g., regional development and industrial location policies, regional dispersion of social and government services, etc. Questions that need to be answered on such an evaluation would include the degree to which policies adopted were actually implemented, to what extent they achieved the stated purposes, and whether what was achieved was desirable.

Another major area of research is the study of the determinants of internal migration by building on the already available studies. These new sets of studies should look into the factors that influence various population sub-groups to migrate or not to migrate, and with respect to the latter, where they migrate.

A third priority area will be on the consequences of internal migration. There is a need to identify and quantify more systematically the economies and diseconomies of internal migration from the point of

the sending areas as well as of the receiving areas, both at the macro level, and from the point of view of the migrant and the non-migrant at the micro level.

Finally, there is a need for continually monitoring migration patterns either through censuses or surveys. Detailed analysis should be made of broad patterns of migration as well as of specific types of migration such as seasonal, return, inter-sectoral, etc. More important, there is a need to relate these patterns to specific characteristics of the migrants themselves as well as of those who are left behind.

INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

As a component of population growth, international migration is of minor significance than the other demographic processes described earlier. The total volume of such migration is small relative to the total population. Yet as Concepcion and Smith (1977) observed: the Philippines is one of a small number of developing societies for which international migration is a significant social-demographic phenomenon. The reasons are that outmigration historically has been linked to important internal population adjustments and more recently the international flow has involved large numbers of skilled professionals. The available Philippine studies dealing with international out-migration is reviewed here.

Levels and Trends.

While administrative procedures require collection of information on a migrant such as visa forms, etc. such information is often available at the receiving country rather than the sending country, and as such it is often not easy to compile such statistics to determine the volume of emigrants regularly. Where information from the receiving country can be collected, either in their censuses or immigration statistics, it is still difficult to sort out accurately the permanent or longer term migrants from the short-term

or temporary ones. On the other hand, available data from various government agencies related to the temporary flow of migrant workers are necessarily incomplete in coverage, since they do not include those workers who migrated on their own. Hence, it is difficult to determine precisely the flow of emigrants at any given time.

Estimates of the outflow of Filipinos to foreign lands have therefore relied on data compiled at the destination country, such as from census returns or from reports of their immigration office. Smith (1976), for example, used the annual reports of the U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service to look at the trend in Filipino travel and migration to the U.S. from 1957 to 1972; and from census returns, both to determine the growth of the Filipino population in the U.S. as well as their changing social composition. Gupta (1973) on the other hand relied mainly on immigration statistics to determine the magnitude of immigrants to the United States, Canada and Australia, around the period 1965 to 1971; on Embassy figures to determine the volume of work permit holders to the United Kingdom; and on the Department of Labor's Registry of Employment Contracts to determine the volume of Philippine contract workers to several countries. A more recent study by Abella (1977) examined current trends in external migration from 1972 to 1977 based on the records of the Bureau of Employment Services (BES) which approves contracts for overseas employ-

ment, the National Seamen Board (NSB) which registers seamen and supervises over their recruitment, and the Overseas Employment Development Board (OEDE), which registers Filipino emigrants and undertakes the placement of Filipino workers overseas.

Piecing together the results of these three studies, one can characterize the dominant patterns of Filipino emigration as follows. The first is the outflow of migrant workers in the early part of the century especially to the United States to work in the plantations in Hawaii and California. This flow involved largely single males coming mostly from the Ilocos region. Subsequent migration up to the 1950s have been small in magnitude involving among others the migration of relatives of both sexes after the war. Much of the Ilocano migration Smith has related to the general demographic and social structure of the Ilocos region and is linked to the general internal movements of these people. The second major pattern is the heavy outflow of Filipinos from various regions of the Philippines and of all ages (migration of entire families) after 1965, significantly associated with the U.S. Immigration and Nationality Act of 1965. This act abolished the old national origins quota system which limited the number of immigrants from a large number of Asian and African countries to 100 per country, and in turn established (a) a ceiling of 170,000 immigrants annually from the Eastern Hemisphere and 120,000

from the Western Hemisphere; and (b) created an immigrant category of 17,000 positions to be filled by "professional, technical, and kindred workers". (Bello, Lynch, Makil, 1969). The effect on Filipino emigration to the U.S. can be gleaned from data compiled by Gupta (1973). The number of Filipinos subject to numerical limitations issued U.S. immigrant visas was 100 in 1965, in accordance with the level of the national quota. By 1969 it has increased 200 times, and has maintained that annual level in 1971. A large part of these emigrants are professionals, technical and allied workers together with their families.

The third major pattern of emigration involves the contract workers or temporary migrant workers whose destination tend to be the Middle East, Europe and Asia. The growth of this temporary migration of workers has outstripped that of permanent migrants, with seamen accounting for around two-thirds the number from 1972-77. This recent migration is a response to great demand for skilled and semi-skilled manpower in the international labor market. Observes Abella (1977): "The overseas labor market has become a very significant absorber of Filipino manpower. The number of Filipinos who found jobs overseas during the period 1972-1976 represent about ten percent of the additions to the labor force during that period. The manufacturing sector managed to absorb only an additional 240,000 workers between

February 1972 and August 1976, whereas the overseas labor market absorbed 169,321 workers during the same period from January 1972 to December 1976, excluding permanent emigrant workers."

Clearly, much more reliable estimates need to be made on the outflow of Filipinos abroad to determine their significance. The usual sources of data contain inherent defects: the census of receiving countries include both recent migrants and native born Filipinos; the immigration statistics do not distinguish permanent from temporary migration; and employment service records do not capture non-organized temporary migrants who take employment abroad on their own. Furthermore, there is need to obtain more regular and systematic data on this phenomenon.

On the problem of estimation, one might note that specialized surveys could be made to add to the existing pool of data sources. A Philippine Brain Drain survey conducted by Bello, Lynch and Makil (1969) for the period 1948-1963 illustrates the potentials as well as the limitations of such an approach in the estimation of the "brain drain". Essentially the study selected a sample of some 1,500 graduates of Philippine colleges from 1948 to 1963, whose course had been either liberal arts, education, law, engineering or commerce and from these questionnaires were sent to obtain the characteristics of respondents in terms of post-college studies, what they were doing

at the time of the survey, and where they lived. Their findings revealed that of all Filipinos who are graduated from Philippine colleges, about seven percent eventually take up permanent residence abroad. Of those who study abroad after college, a maximum of about 40 percent eventually emigrate. Factors associated with emigration include country of post-college studies, sex, college course taken, college attended and source of support. Emigrants tended to be those who have studied abroad, alumni of relatively high quality colleges and universities in the Manila area, those who paid their own way during their studies. Of those who studied abroad females tend to emigrate more than men, while for those who did not study abroad, men tended to emigrate more than women.

Determinants

As may be expected, the factors motivating the migrants are varied and complex depending on the type of migrant. The earlier migrant workers to the U.S. to work in plantations were just probably lured by the chance to obtain employment and by higher pay. The migration of the Ilocanos, in particular, was linked by Smith (1976) to the meagerly resource base provided by the region's topography and climate which gave rise, among others, to internal and foreign migration.

Among the second wave of migrants consisting mostly of professionals and related workers, the main motivating factors would perhaps include better opportunities to practice their profession and to advance professionally in addition of high wage rates. In a study of factors associated with the outflow of U.S. educated Filipinos, who had at least a Bachelor's degree and went to the U.S. for degree or specialized training during the years 1960-1965, Cortez (1970) found that the propensity to emigrate is higher among persons who have weak psychological, social and other ties or attachment to his home country; and who perceive little opportunity for themselves in the Philippines. Usually these tend also to be young, single, females who have no job to return to, who are in the fields of natural sciences and engineering. McCarthy (1970) interviewed 100 "productive" scientists (one who has published at least one article beyond his thesis) in 10 universities to determine how they view the world, their discipline, the society and their future. Questions were asked about the work conditions, networks, research opportunities and support, and intellectual environment. He found that there are more than economic factors alone that determine whether these scientists stay or leave. A perception of a general lack of opportunities for professional advancement like inability to do research, due either to the lack of facilities, support or time; lack of professional stimulation; and the lack of

links to the external scientific world, were found instrumental in a scientist's decision to leave the country.

In a survey of 410 professionals who have studied abroad at least two years or more and had returned home, Parel (1975) found that the greatest attraction for the respondents to stay abroad for a substantial time while they were completing their studies related to working conditions, availability of skilled assistants, close contact with developments in their profession, prospects for faster professional development and good pay. Why did they return? A large majority of Parel's respondents reported they were under legal obligations to return!

In a study of determinants of the migration intentions of 319 Filipino graduate students in the United States, Card (1975) found that "push" factors from the Philippines were more relevant to migration than "pull" factors from the United States; valuation of the Philippines in terms of economic, social and professional opportunities was consistently a better predictor of migration than nature of experience in or attitudes toward the United States. Respondents tended to evaluate the Philippines less favorably than the US; they also tended to identify more strongly with the US than with the Philippines.

A large portion of the so-called brain drain is associated with the outflow of medical doctors and nurses. Hence, studies relating to their perceptions are specially important. Asperilla (1975) surveyed Filipino nurses in the New York, Philadelphia and Chicago areas who later returned to the Philippines regarding the reasons for their emigration in the first instance and subsequently for their return. She found that the "pull" factors that encouraged migration were the opportunity for professional and personal growth, better remuneration, and the opportunity to travel and see places. On the other hand, the respondents returned to the Philippines because their visas had expired. The majority of the subjects, however, expressed their desire to return to the United States on an immigrant visa.

In another study Abad (1975) chose a random sample of 63 Filipino physicians who were then affiliated with New York hospitals and medical centers. He found that the most important reasons for these doctors remaining in the U.S. after training include the desire to acquire professional skills, to save money for personal use after return, and to wait for political development, in the Philippines.

In short, motivations for migrating or of intentions to migrate among professionals and skilled personnel are associated with economic,

professional as well as with social-psychological factors. The other side of the equation, however, are the immigration laws and provisions for their enforcement in the receiving countries, again notably in the U.S. The Immigration Act of 1965 which relaxed restrictions on race and country of origin and placed greater emphasis on skills, greatly facilitated the outflow of skilled manpower from the Philippines.

The more recent development of an upward trend in the temporary migration of skilled contractual workers to such areas as the Middle East, Asia and Europe, however, can be traced to the great demand for labor in these countries, and to the Philippine government policy of encouraging such outflow in a more organized manner.

Consequences

What are the consequences of the outflow of skilled manpower from the Philippines? Assessment of these by social scientists have yet to be made systematically. Gupta (1973) for example, compares the outflow of Filipino professional workers in 1970 with the total stock of professionals at that time. In spite of severe limitations of the data, the data indicate some 3 to 4 percent of engineers of various types, and of different categories of health and medical personnel have migrated out of the country. In terms of graduates in

these fields in 1968-1969, the percentage of outflow in 1970 amounted to 29 percent for the first category and 50 percent for the second. The largest outflow occurred among aeronautical engineers (50 percent) and industrial engineers (47 percent) in the first category; while in the second, the largest outflow occurred among physicians and surgeons (62 percent), dentists (95 percent) pharmacists (70 percent), dieticians and nutritionists (87 percent) and veterinarians (68 percent). The effect of such heavy flows from cumulative stock or from recent graduates can be assessed in terms of the needs of the economy for such services. The loss to the country in terms of their potential services as well as the cost of their training and education, however, could be balanced against employment opportunities available to these skilled personnel at home, as well as to amount of remittances they provide while abroad. These types of information, however, are unavailable at present to properly assess the cost to the country of such outflow.

The same arguments can be made for the contractual workers to some degree. That the large outflow of these workers could ease up unemployment problems is not clear from our present knowledge, nor do we know anything about their impact on production and wage structures.

Clearly, much more detailed analyses on the impact of the outflow of skilled manpower both the permanent and the temporary ones are needed to guide policy on this matter. Another set of issues that has not been sufficiently addressed is the impact of return migrants on innovative behavior (McArthur Jr., 1975) investments in the community (Griffiths, 1975) and on the role of remittances.

Public Policy

In view of the general lack of knowledge of the magnitude of the manpower outflow and of its impact, it is not surprising that there is no definitive policy on the out-migration of such manpower. Several attempts however have been made to minimize the problem of manpower outflow, especially among doctors, scientists and exchange scholars. These actions which Gupta (1973) has identified include (a) the Medical Care Act of 1969 which was expected to broaden employment opportunities for medical personnel in the country; (b) the recent legislation for the establishment of a health science centers in the University of the Philippines; (c) the development of community health service programmes; (d) the expansion of rural health units; (e) the creation of a science research fund together with the setting up of a number of research institutes.

Other programs include the government's arrangements made with the U.S. government such that the Exchange Visitors Program could be amended in such a way that certain persons specializing in fields which the Philippines is in need of skills will not normally get a waiver in the U.S. from the two years' previous foreign residence requirement. More recent attempts to address the problem of the brain drain include the Balik-Scientists Program and the requirement for rural internship for doctors and nurses before they are allowed to go abroad for further studies or for employment. On the other hand, there seems to be a policy of government to encourage the flow of contractual workers to foreign countries in terms of group contract schemes in which control of remittances can be made.

As a final note, a comprehensive public policy on international emigration of skilled manpower has yet to be made. However, much still needs to be known from which to base such a policy.

Towards a Research Agenda

To properly assess the magnitude of international migration, one needs to have reliable and up-to-date information of such migration in terms of its volume, reasons for migration, average length of stay, the amount of remittance and returned savings, cost of migration and

the characteristics of migrants. In addition to the traditional sources of data, specialized surveys could be conducted to generate such information on a systematic basis.

In addition, studies on the consequences of emigration is called for. What are the economic and social effects of the recently initiated flows of skilled and semi-skilled workers. Part of the justification for such research is the insight such studies might reveal as to measures that the government could take to increase the benefits obtained from this migration by both the economy as well as by the migrants themselves.

Thirdly, there is need to evaluate current policies or measures to induce highly trained nationals to remain at home or for those abroad to return home, as well as of policies regarding the organized export of semi-skilled and skilled labor. The questions that need to be answered are: (a) to what degree was the policy actually implemented; (b) what was the design or mode of operation, (c) to what extent was the stated purpose achieved and (d) how beneficial were the end results for the different parties concerned. Finally, one could re-examine the educational and training programs in an effort to redesign such programs that will prepare people to perform the jobs that are available and need to be done in the country.

A SUMMARY AND ELEMENTS OF A RESEARCH AGENDA

Figure 1 below describes a general framework for viewing population-development relationships from a policy maker's and planner's perspective. In this framework, the demographic processes are determined by public sector policies and programs directly through narrowly based single-purpose programs, and indirectly through their effects on the other areas of development concern; at the same time, they influence the nature and level of public intervention through their effects on the attainment of the traditional developmental goals. The generally circular nature of the relationship is broken down into discrete units to highlight specific components of the population-development process vis-a-vis the role of public policy.

To start off, the demographic processes of fertility, mortality and migration (Block A) determine at some given time period, the size, growth and spatial distribution of the population. These changes could affect the attainment of development objectives reflected by the areas of concern (Block B), which in turn modifies public policy to take account of the resulting population characteristics in determining the level of public intervention in the next planning period. In addition, the observed consequences of demographic trends on the areas of concern could generate policies and programs that directly affect the demographic processes themselves with the view of minimizing

their adverse influence on the attainment of traditional developmental goals. A family planning program designed essentially to directly reduce the birth rate; a narrowly designed public health program to control epidemics and a resettlement or relocation program designed narrowly to transfer people, are examples of such direct public interventions since they are not meant to substantially affect the non-demographic areas of concern.

Looking at the relationship from another point of view, the formulation of public policies and implementation of programs are determined by the need of public authorities to affect changes in the non-demographic areas of concern, taking into account the exogenously determined population characteristics. These interventions would presumably affect these areas of concern in varying degrees according to both their intended effects as well as the unintended ones. One set of such unintended effects could be the effects of the changes in these areas of concern on the demographic processes. Hence, public interventions pursued essentially with non-demographic objectives in mind could have significant demographic consequences as well.

This simple framework allows us to highlight the main findings and limitations of current social science research on population-development links. The first set of information necessary for policy making and planning is of course the levels and trends in the demographic

variables themselves. Our review reveals that we know more about fertility levels, less on migration and much less so on mortality; and generally, in each of these variables, we know more about levels and trends at the national level than at the sub-national level and among social groups.

Secondly, what do we know about the consequences of demographic trends? In most of the studies examined, demographic trends have been expressed in terms of rapid population growth, either through natural increase (the balance between births and deaths) in the case of the nation as a whole, or through natural increase and migration in the case of sub-national areas, notably metropolitan and urban areas. Studies that examined the impact of rapid population growth at the national level point to the adverse effects of such growth on per capita income, employment and the provision of basic services such as education and health. None of these researches however studied actual consequences of demographic trends, rather these consequences were inferred from the results of simulation exercises using economic-demographic models of different specifications. The above inferences can be extended at the sub-national level with respect to the impact of rapid rural-urban migration on urban employment problems and the increased pressure in the provision of urban services.

Studies at the micro-level emphasized the effects of increased family size on savings, morbidity and nutritional status of children. With respect to the micro-level consequences of migration, both negative and positive effects on the migrants have been suggested depending upon the nature of migrant selectivity in terms of age, sex, and educational status.

Knowledge of the consequences of demographic trends are necessary in order to generate interest in the need for a population policy. In view of the already strong commitment of the Philippine government to a population policy and program to affect demographic trends, the type of macro-consequences studies represented in the review have probably serve this purpose adequately. What is now critical however is the need for a type of consequence studies that determine precisely who are the most adversely affected by such demographic trends, what are their characteristics, and where are they located. Information for example on what geographical areas or social groups are most affected by high fertility, high mortality and rapid migration, could help formulate specific policies and programs geared directly towards these population groups.

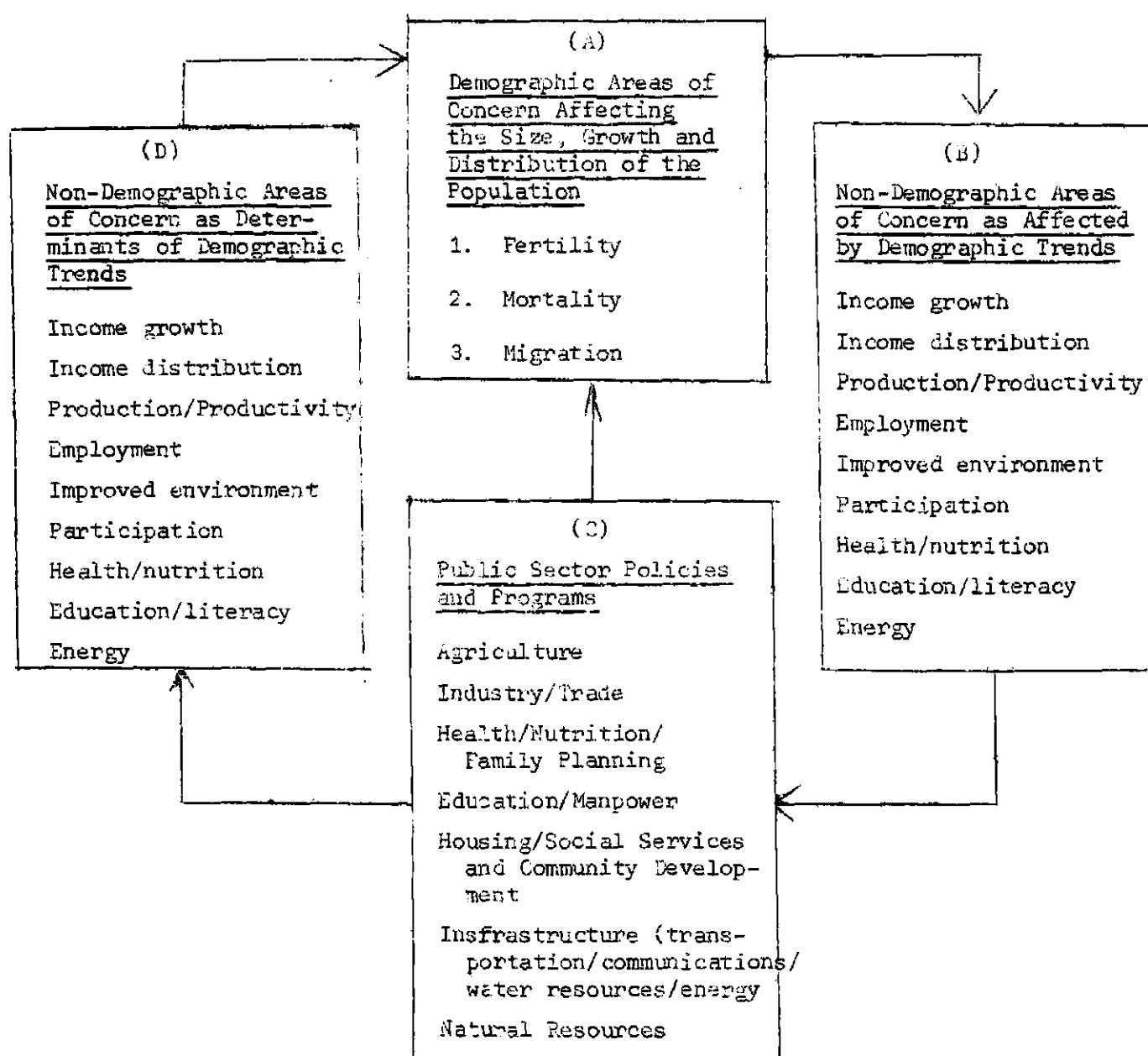
Thirdly, what do we know about the determinants of demographic trends? The studies reviewed suggest the existence of strong interaction among demographic variables: differential migration patterns

can have significant impact on nuptiality patterns and therefore fertility; however the effect of fertility on mortality and vice versa appear to be of lesser magnitude. In addition the studies reviewed suggest that changes in the values of the non-demographic areas of concern could have discernible impact on demographic trends: with respect to fertility, through changes in education and health, as well as through female employment via its effect on the age at marriage; with respect to migration, through availability of employment opportunities and access to educational services; and finally with respect to mortality, through improved health and nutrition services and improved environmental sanitation. Hence, policies and programs that affect these areas of concern could have discernible impact on the demographic variables. What is not precisely known however is (a) the quantitative extent and the specific mechanisms through which these policies and programs affect these areas of concern; and (b) through what specific mechanisms and to what quantitative extent do changes in these broad non-demographic areas of concern in turn affect these demographic variables. These types of information are critical in the optimal design of policies and programs that address both the non-demographic and demographic objectives.

Finally, what do we know about the policy making process itself? How do policy makers formulate policies? From what types of

information do they base these policies and programs? What additional types of information do they perceive they would need to do a better job? We know of no such studies thus far that might answer these questions. In the continuing dialogue between social science researchers and policy makers, it seems that the question could be better answered by the policy makers themselves!.

Figure 1: A Framework for Analyzing Population-Development Relationships From a Planner's Viewpoint



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